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ABSTRACT

Elementary school teachers acknowledge the need for better writing instruction, but seldom have time for it within their already crowded curricula. Writing instruction suffers from placing skills development before writing activities, from emphasis on reading, and because many teachers are not well prepared to teach writing. A low priority is given to writing at the college level, and the time spent on writing instruction in high schools is only a fraction of that recommended by researchers. Teachers need to take advantage of the fact that children have a natural urge to write before they want to read. Since writing contributes to reading comprehension and helps to focus thinking skills, reading and writing should be taught in a way that highlights opportunities for observing the connections between oral and written language. Children who are used to writing for others can more easily achieve the necessary objectivity for reading works by others and the vocabulary building that results improves children's reading skills. Spelling is an aid to writing and has no use apart from writing, nor do isolated writing skills. Teachers should accept children's early misspellings in the same spirit that parents accept their early mispronunciation in oral language. Penmanship becomes more legible, and punctuation more consistent when these skills are taught in the context of the goal toward which they are directed. (An annotated bibliography of materials dealing with integrating writing in the elementary school curriculum is appended.) (HTH)

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Integrating Writing Into the Elementary Language Arts Curriculum: Let's Put Writing In Its Place

by

Helen P. Odum

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Preface

I decided to attend the Eastern Virginia Writing Project because I kept hearing and reading that American high school graduates cannot write. The colleges blame the high schools. The high schools in turn blame the junior high schools and right down the pecking order to the elementary schools. Since I am one who does not like being included in general accusations, I decided to find out if, in fact, I was at fault, so I made the decision to study writing in order to gather information for a defense. When I read about the Eastern Virginia Writing Project, I decided that it should be a good source for gathering such information.

Though I know that I have only begun to understand the problem, I do feel that I have recognized some basic needs. Excessive competition, ability grouping, lack of patience, rigid grade levels, parental and teacher ignorance of developmental processes, and inappropriate instructional materials and techniques are among the many factors that lead to failure in writing. Since each of these factors is an environmental condition, they can be changed by teachers, schools, and society (Cramer, p. 20). Better teacher education on composition and greater precedence for writing within the curriculum are two of the most signficant needs. This paper deals primarily with the latter.

Integrating Writing Into the Elementary Language Arts Curriculum: Let's Put Writing In Its Place

The recent national concern with writing comes at a bad time. Teachers are wearing thin. They have already squeezed courses on drug abuse, career education, and computer science into their curriculum. Now they have been told that in addition to their thirty "normal" students they already have, they will now have to mainstream their handicapped students and, at the same time, guarantee mastery of Basic Learning Skills and test for minimum competencies.

I am sure that while many teachers readily acknowledge the need for better writing instruction, they are going to ask, "Where am I to get the time and energy to teach writing?" The writing process takes time and the time has to come from somewhere in the curriculum. Young writers need time to run into their own problems and to ask their own questions. When children ask questions and raise the dilemmas, skills are learned in context (Calkins, "Writers Put...", p. 1).

The proposal defended in this paper is to find the time to teach writing within the present schedule by taking time away from workbooks and fill-in-the-blank drills and integrate writing into the curriculum. Implications for reading will come first, followed by English, spelling, and writing, in that order.

Americans are now clamoring for a "return to the basics" and to some extent, the schools have responded. However, many schools are devoting most of their energies to reading improvement and mathematical

competence. Writing is being short-changed, almost as if it were a fad. The so-called return to basics vaults over writing to the skills of penmanship, vocabulary, spelling, and usage that are thought necessary to precede composition.

In a research report to the Ford Foundation entitled "Balance the Basics: Let Them Write," Donald Graves discusses the reasons American students are such poor writers. Writing suffers because higher premiums are placed on one's ability to receive messages than on his ability to send them. We persist in seeing writing as a method of moral development, not as an essential mode of communication. Schools show little concern for the development of the learners themselves or the important ideas they may have to share. The emphasis on skills development before writing begins may have the matter backwards (Graves, 1978).

Writing also suffers because reading dominates elementary education today. Publishers' textbooks reflect a one-sided interest in reading. The demands on teachers of writing evaluation alone is hard work. Most elementary and secondary teachers are not well prepared to teach writing. Many teachers do not write and few writing models exist for children.

Donald Murray summarizes some of the many reasons writing instruction is ineffective in ten myths which have been passed on by generations of English teachers as articles of faith (Murray, pp. 105, 106, 107).

MYTH ONE: Correct usage comes first.

MYTH TWO: Each student paper must be corrected by the teacher.

MYTH THREE: Students should write a few papers but write them well.

MYTH FOUR: Students do not want to write.

MYTH FIVE: A good reader will become a good writer.

MYTH SIX: The best subject is a literary subject.

MYTH SEVEN: Grade levels are significant in teaching writing.

MYTH EIGHT: Students learn best by imitating models of great writing.

MYTH NINE: You can teach writing by talking.

MYTH TEN: You can't teach writing.

While this paper's primary goal is to support the value of integrating writing into the elementary language arts curriculum, I hope to dispel some of these myths.

A study by the National Council of Teachers of English revealed that only half the English teachers had courses in composition beyond freshman English and even in them, the emphasis is on literature (Murray, p. 103). Writing is given low priority in most English departments, and the teaching of it is often relegated entirely to graduate students and junior faculty members (Graves, 1978, p. 15). Teacher-certification requirements also contribute to the deficiency in writing. Even for teachers who want to get help, adequate courses in the teaching of writing are limited. The Eastern Virginia Writing Project is an effort to alleviate this problem.

In his article, "On the Teaching of Writing," Archibald MacLeish has written

> The whole situation in a writing course is a reverse of the usual academic pattern. Not only is there no subject, there is no content either. Or, more precisely, the content is the work produced by the students. And the relation of the teacher to the students is thus the opposite of the relationship we would expect to find. Ordinarily,

> it is the teacher who knows, the student who learns. Here it is the student who knows, or should, and the teacher who learns, or tries to (Calkins, "Make It Messy...", p. 4).

Barriers to good writing are not as high or insurmountable as they seem. Students who write poorly can improve quickly with skilled personal attention that concentrates on what they know and can tell others. Writing is hard work and man is often lazy, so that students are not likely to write unless writing is required (Murray, p. 106). Good teaching does produce good writing in the writing class (Murray, p. 103).

Most students pass through twelve years of English courses, but few ever have an intensive, concentrated opportunity to learn to write. The vital ability to express oneself with clarity and grace must be taught.

In a survey of high school education, James Bryant Conant proposed that half the time spent in English courses in high school be spent on composition. The College English Examination Board states that one-third of the time should be spent on writing. While this seems reasonable, a survey of 168 high school English departments in 45 states done for the United States Office of Education and National Council of Teachers of English revealed that composition was emphasized only 15.7 percent of the class time (Murray, p. 105). While no comparable study for elementary schools was located, one can make certain inferences.

Children want to write before they want to read. They are more fascinated by their own marks than by the marks of others. Young children leave their messages on refrigerators, wallpaper, moist windowpanes, sidewalks, and even on paper.

There are numerous reasons why writing is so important. Writing makes a major contribution to the development of a person no matter what the person's background and talents. It contributes to intelligence and develops initiative and courage. It can be a means of personal breakthrough in learning. Writing contributes to reading comprehension and can contribute to the understanding of math and other subjects (Graves, 1978, pp. 6-9).

Writing focuses thinking. Talking is less effective in focusing thinking. In writing, one's thoughts are laid out in a linear fashion. Therefore, it is easier for ideas to be arranged and rearranged until a clearer thought structure is constructed. Written thoughts can be manipulated more easily than verbal thoughts. Writing can be an aid to clear thinking (Cramer, p. 90). Cognitive theorists such as Piaget, Vygotsky, and Bruner have concerned themselves with the development of a theory which accounts for cognitive development (Cramer, p. 12). Moffett believes that language learning is ultimately a cognitive matter.

Since written language is derived from oral language, one would conclude that writing might be taught most effectively as an active practice. Reading and writing should be taught in a way that maximizes opportunities for observing the intimate connections between oral and written language. Native language learning occurs best in a natural, informal, highly stimulating environment. Consequently, writing instruction should take place in a similar setting.

Learning happens naturally. It happens partly because the child is preprogrammed to learn oral language and partly because the child is constantly exposed to what he is destined to learn. Children acquire language through imitation and internalization of adult language models.

In learning oral language, there is little or no stress on the learner. However, the circumstances accompanying the teaching of reading and writing are often stressful and frequently produce anxiety in the learner (Cramer, p. 18).

Few children fail to learn to talk, so it seems that if teachers and parents would exhibit the same patient confidence in the successful outcome of reading and writing instruction that we might have more successful experiences. Teachers and parents typically expect at least one year's progress in reading and writing growth for each year in school without considering that schools are typically organized in a way that takes little notice of maturational differences among children. The child who fails to reach this mythical norm may be subjected to all sorts of pressures that lead to anxiety, rebellion, apathy, discouragement, and other stress reactions (Cramer, p. 19).

Writing can contribute to reading from the first day a child enters school. Donald Durrell, a pioneer in the reading field and an authority for fifty years, strongly advocates the use of writing as a help to reading. "Writing is active; it involves the child; and doing is important," he says. "Teachers make learning too passive. We have known for years the child's first urge is to write and not read and we have not taken advantage of this fact. We have underestimated the power of the output languages like speaking and writing" (Graves, p. 9).

Reading and writing complement one another in the same way that talking and listening do. Each process mutually strengthens and extends the other. Yet, reading and writing are seldom taught within the same time frame, nor is their intimate relatedness recognized

for teaching purposes. For many children, writing is never a part of their education. It is important that reading and writing begin in the early primary grades. The two processes can be taught compatibly within the same time frame (Cramer, p. 20).

As children grow older, writing contributes strongly to reading comprehension. Research has tied reading comprehension to the ability of students to combine sentences in writing. The ability to revise writing for greater power and economy is one of the higher forms of reading. Reading is even more active when a writer has to read and adjust his own ideas (Graves, 1978, p. 8).

One of the common complaints of reading teachers is that children fail in the higher forms of comprehension: inferential and critical questions. It is difficult for many readers to separate their own thinking from that of the author, to stand far enough back from the material to see the author's point of view as distinct from their own. On the other hand, children who are used to writing for others achieve more easily the necessary objectivity for reading the work of others (Graves, p. 24).

Writing requires writers to focus on words and their meaning. The vocabulary building that results inevitably improves children's ability to understand what they read. Writing teaches writers about the influence of context clues. Children can systematically build a more powerful writing vocabulary by maintaining a personal word list as well as phrases and sentences pulled from his own writings (Cramer, p. 153).

Even young writers making vocabulary errors attests to the student's knowledge of the word he is misusing. He may have learned to say the word without knowing what it means; or he may have learned

what a word stands for without having learned its exact written or spoken form; he may have only a vague sense of meaning or spelling; he may know the word well enough to get past it as he reads but not well enough to use it in his oral language or his writing; or he may know only one of a word's multiple meanings; or he may know how to spell the word and what it means but not understand how the word is affected semantically or syntactically, by the words around it (Shaughnessy, p. 189).

Writing is the most practical way to reinforce the progress children are making in auditory discrimination ability. Writing provides an ideal context in which the beginning reader can perfect letter-sound associations. Children's writings can be examined to determine which letter-sound associations are causing the child difficulty (Cramer, p. 154).

Writing also contributes to reading because writing is the making of reading. When a child writes, he has to know the sound-symbol relations inherent in reading. Auditory, visual, and kinesthetic systems are all at work when the child writes, and all contribute to greater skill in reading (Graves, 1978, p. 8).

Mellon's very credible study was the first to establish that formal language exercise can cause students to write with greater syntactic fluency than noraml growth would. Mellon is convinced that what achieved the more-than-normal growth in linguistic elaboration was "the students' experience itself of embedding kernel sentences so as to create complex sentences," not the learning of transformational nomenclature and rules which are taught only to facilitate the exercise procedures (Moffett, pp. 166, 167).

Loban believes isolated grammar instruction to be ineffectual and recommends oral practice and grappling with language problems in real communication situations (Moffett, p. 162).

Kellogg Hunt identifies features of syntactic growth as: the increasing modification of nouns by large clusters of adjectives, relative clauses, and reduced relative clauses; the increasing use of nominalizations other than nouns and pronouns for subjects and objects; and the embedding of sentences to an increasing depth. He maintains that the reasons why children do not elaborate as much as adults stem from causes other than ignorance of grammar and believes that students need to hear and read a lot of elaborated sentences so that they can internalize the forms and relations. He also believes that students have to discover the deficiencies of simple sentences through speaking and writing (Moffett, pp. 162, 163).

There is good reason to believe that the final answer to linguistic elaboration lies beyond language, in general cognitive development, and that intellectual stimulation is far more likely to accelerate syntactic growth than mere grammar knowledge. What has been proven so far is that diagramming sentences, memorizing the names and definitions of parts of speech and otherwise learning the concepts of traditional grammar or of structural, fill-in-the-blank grammar do not reduce errors (Moffett, p. 163).

For children who have learned a non-standard grammar at home, transformational grammar, even when learned, remains a little body of knowledge powerless to permeate their old language habits. The trouble is that teachers are prone to conceive language as an external object instead of an internal operation (Moffett, p. 168).

Experience with real "in the flesh" writing is the most functional way for children to learn the necessary mechanics of writing. Learning the mechanics of writing in nonwriting settings is too far removed from the real thing to provide meaningful practice, much less accomplish real learning. The mechanics of writing help clarify and emphasize the content of writing, but they are much less important than the content of writing. Consequently, teaching the mechanics should remain subordinate to teaching young writers to express their ideas and feelings with clarity and sincerity. The mechanics of writing may be taught, but cannot be learned, from workbooks and ditto sheets. Active writing provides the most valid opportunity for learning the mechanics of writing (Cramer, p. 156).

The results of a study by Lucy Calkins reported in the May, 1980 issue of Language Arts that compares children from a third grade writing class and children from a mechanics class who could correctly describe each type of punctuation strongly supports the statement above.

Mechanics class (total = 16)

Period	13
Question mark	10
Exclamation mark	8
Parentheses	7
Apostrophe	4
Dash	4
Comma	3
Quotation marks	2
Semi-colon	0
Asterisk	0
Colon	0
Caret	0
Paragraph sign	0

Writing class (total = 18)

Period	18
Exclamation mark	16
Question mark	16
Apostrophe	14
Paragraph sign	13
Dash	12
Caret	11
Quotation marks	11
Comma	10
Colon	8
Parentheses	7
Asterisk	7
Semi-colon	1

(Calkins, 1980, p. 567)

The order of the two lists is similar. But writers know many more types of punctuation.

Teachers should introduce the rudiments of mechanical skills (punctuation, capitalization, and format) concurrently with the beginning of reading instruction without worrying about what each is named but how it is used. Initiating reading instruction by recording children's language provides a natural opportunity to do this. Eventually, a more systematic approach to the teaching of mechanics should be started through editing workshops. However, only children who write fluently are ready for editing techniques. Children who are still struggling to put down a few meager sentences should develop fluency in writing before editing is introduced. Many times editing will not take place effectively before the third or fourth grade (Cramer, p. 157).

This might be the appropriate time to differentiate between editing and revising. Editing refers to the correction of spelling, grammar, and handwriting errors which revising refers to changes which are made in words, sentences and paragraphs. In an interview with Donald Graves, Donald Murray described revision as adding what you need, taking out what you don't need, and putting what you have left in the proper order.

Further reference is made to editing and revision in the inservice lesson. Other methods of revision are presented in Moffett's book, A Student-Centered Language Arts Curriculum.

Spelling is an aid to writing and has no use apart from writing. Traditionally, American educators have used textbooks with lists of words selected by various criteria to teach spelling to children. But textbooks have not been entirely satisfactory. This is not surprising since many spelling materials are divorced from writing. Linguistic rules and visual-tactile techniques which are used in most spelling texts are not sufficient to develop spelling competence. Spelling achieves functional meaning only through writing. Therefore, the teaching of spelling should be closely related to the teaching of writing (Cramer, p. 115).

The research of Cramer and of Stauffer and Hammond shows that first grade children whose language arts program emphasized writing and expansive reading became superior spellers within six months and maintained their superiority throughout their elementary school careers. By instructing these children to spell words "as best they could," their phonological and morphological knowledge, which they possessed naturally, was applied every time they attempted to spell a word (Cramer, p. 106).

Research by Beers and by Henderson and Beers has shown that words misspelled in early writing are later spelled correctly. There was no tendency to remain at a primitive level of spelling competence (Cramer, p. 107).

Moffett maintains that educators spend their time uselessly when instruction in spelling and punctuation continues beyond the

primary school and too little time is allocated to teaching comprehension and composition as children mature (Moffett, p. 16). He advocates a working knowledge of grammar rather than a conceptual grasp of grammatical generalizations, and prefers the development of judgement in sentence construction as measured by communicative effectiveness to the expansion of syntactic repertory for elaboration's sake (Moffett, p. 156).

Spoken and written language are governed by rules. In order to read and write, children must learn the rules that govern written language, including pronunciation, spelling, organization, and interpretation. Usually, the rules are formally taught. Perhaps there is too much formal teaching of rules in reading and writing instruction. An inductive approach in which children are encouraged to explore and experiment with written language would require enormous faith and patience while children experiment with trial and error and sometimes take the wrong path, but it might prove more fruitful than the rule-oriented conventional methods currently used.

Accurate spelling requires the learning of a complicated set of linguistic rules and some learning of words by visual-tactile procedures. Many years are required to master English spelling. To foster writing and spelling competence, teachers should encourage young children to spell words "as best they can." Teachers must be willing to tolerate some misspellings by young writers. This enables children to achieve fluency in independent writing and opens the way for children to experiment with the relationships between letters and sounds. The final test of good spellers is how well they spell words in compositions, not how well they spell words on tests or in spelling bees (Cramer, p. 105).

Cramer specifies four basic principles of effective spelling instruction. He states that an excellent writing program is the key to a good spelling program, and reminds us that each child learns words at a rate suited to his or her ability and personal spelling needs. He recommends that formal spelling instruction should not begin until a first grade reading level has been achieved and suggests personalized spelling lists as an aid to writing (Cramer, p. 111).

Listed below are the basic procedures Cramer recommends for a personalized spelling program.

1. Personalized spelling listed are prepared weekly for each child or group.
2. The teacher should be cautious when selecting spelling words from the children's writing.
3. The size of each child's weekly spelling list should vary according to his ability to learn and retain words.
4. Each child writes his or her weekly words on index cards and organizes them alphabetically in lists or in a notebook.
5. A method of study and practice should be suggested.
6. When a child is ready, he or she takes a test on the weekly spelling lists.
7. Review tests should be constructed periodically (four to six weeks).

(Cramer, pp. 112-113).

In summary, spelling exercises should (1) focus on word meaning, (2) stress inductive learning of spelling generalizations, (3) incorporate word games and puzzles, and (4) be clearly written and illustrated (Cramer, p. 114).

There is a similarity between learning to speak and learning to spell. Parents of a young child who is learning to speak are so

pleased when their child first approximates the pronunciation of "dad" with a somewhat recognizable "da" that they immediately reward the child with positive reinforcement. Rarely do the parents correct the child's pronunciation. Instead, they marvel at how closely the child came to saying "dad." However, when a child's first attempts at writing produce a misspelled word, the first thing we do is point out the misspelling and say that it is wrong (Cramer, p. 107).

Teachers should accept young writers' early misspellings in the same spirit that parents accept the early mispronunciation in children's oral language. It is extremely unlikely that the misspelling will continue if the children have abundant opportunity to write, read, and explore words. Children should be surrounded with a rich oral and written language environment and should be given the freedom to explore their written language environment actively. Teachers and parents must remember that making errors is not harmful but that it is the common bond among successful experimenters. When we nurture children with language activities that are interesting, enjoyable, and satisfying, they will (learn the conventions of English orthography and) become capable spellers (Cramer, p. 107).

The physical act of moving the pen or pencil across the page so as to form decipherable words is fundamental to other writing skills. Writing instruction usually begins with manuscript and later, at about third grade, students are faced with making the transition from manuscript to cursive writing. Some students master this skill before others merely because of the struggle with

basic motor-mental coordinations which is involved. As long as the mechanical processes involved in writing are themselves highly conscious or even labored, the writer is not likely to have easy access to his thoughts (Shaughnessy, p. 14). Thus, Graves and others decree, "We must let them write."

Students have frustrated many teachers by practicing poor handwriting. While we may legitimately complain that composition is poorly taught, one would believe that most teachers do make an honest effort to teach appropriate handwriting. Yet, we continue to be plagued by samples of poor writing in practice. The fact that handwriting is usually taught as an isolated subject may contribute to the poor quality handwriting too often seen in school. Learning to write legibly is enhanced when the teacher integrates the teaching of handwriting mechanics with written communication. Writing legibly is best motivated by making the child aware of the goal toward which handwriting is directed -- independent authorship (Cramer, p. 155).

Poor handwriting is not so much a cause of bad composition as it is an indication that the writer is not at home with this skill and that he is hindered not only by the difficulties of articulation but also by the stiffness with the tool. The answer to this is practice -- writing, writing, and more writing, preferably in modes that encourage a flow of words such as journals and free writing, until the pen seems a natural extension of the hand and of the mind itself. Compared with the thousand words a week that a student in England is likely to have written in the equivalent of an American high school, the basic writing student is more likely to have written only 350 words a semester. Writers must be prolific in order to ever become fluent (Shaughnessy, p. 16, 14).

While we want students to have the freedom to write, that is not a license to be sloppy. Teachers who stress writing have the best opportunity to develop children's handwriting because their children have the most need to apply their handwriting skills. Children should be encouraged to practice their handwriting skills by writing meaningful written messages to their parents, messages to other children, and notes to teachers within the building. The natural motivation to produce a neat, readable copy is present in each of these tasks (Cramer, p. 156).

Handwriting styles become extensions of ourselves and are, therefore, difficult to see, let alone change. If a student can see what others see, he is more likely to recognize the need to take pains. Projecting various writing styles on a screen and presenting material on developmental stages in handwriting can help the student look objectively at his own writing style. It can even persuade a student who is camouflaging his uncertainties in spelling by blurring his script that he loses as much as he gains by such strategies. When writing becomes so cramped or slanted or blurred as to force the reader into puzzling out the shapes of letters, the patience of the reader and the meaning of the writer are both lost (Shaughnessy, p. 16, 17).

The expectations of learners and teachers powerfully influence what happens in school. Not all students who have been judged academically inferior are necessarily or natively so. This is disturbing, because, however unsound, such judgements may be causing students to lag behind their peers little by little until the gap that separates the groups begins to seem vast and permanent (Shaughnessy, p. 275).

KDS CN RIT SUNR THN WE THINGK
(Kids can write sooner than we think)

INTERGRATING WRITING INTO THE ELEMENTARY LANGUAGE ARTS CURRICULUM

Let's Put Writing In It s Place

An Annotated Bibliography

By

Helen P. Odum

Beach, Richard. Writing About Ourselves and Others. Urbana, Illinois: ERIC Clearinghouse of Reading and Communication Skills and National Council of Teachers of English, 1977.
This is an excellent brochure on theory and research into the practice of using writing as a means of students understanding themselves and others. The distinctions of autobiographies, memoirs, and portrait writing are discussed.

Calkins, Lucy. "Children Learn the Writer's Craft," Language Arts, National Council of Teachers of English, Vol. 57, No. 2, February, 1980, p. 207-212.
Calkins demonstrates how mastery of conventions and concern with audience and final product are part of the process of play becoming craft. Once rule-conscious, audience-aware children rediscover their playful roots, their writing process becomes qualitatively similar to the process most professional writers experience.

Calkins, Lucy. "Make It Messy to Make It Clear," Teacher Magazine, in press.
Calkins makes observations about the natural editing and revising done by an eight year old writer before, during, and after writing and concludes that revision is an organic personal process, not unlike learning to think, learning to question and learning to research. She believes, that given the opportunity to experiment, and the encouragement fail and try again will help children grow.

Calkins, Lucy. "Punctuate! Punctuate? Punctuate," Learning Magazine, February, 1980.
Based on a two year study of the writing habits of 6-9 year olds, Calkins concludes that basic skills, including punctuation, belong in context. "When Children Want to Punctuate" (which was her original title) they will not only ask for help determining which of the punctuation marks is appropriate, they will chance using the marks they're seen on bill boards, magazines, books, friends, papers.

Calkins, Lucy. "Writers Put Punctuation in It's Place" Language Arts, May, 1980, p. 567.
In this article Calkins appeals to elementary teachers to teach punctuation as a part of the writing process. She supports her appeal with a study which showed third grade "writers" who had not had formal instruction in punctuation could define or explain an average of 8.66 kinds of punctuation while children who had studied punctuation throught classwork drills and tests, but had rarely written, were only able to define/explain 3.85 kinds of punctuation.

Clapp, Quida, (ed.) Classroom Practices in Teaching English, 1975-1976: On Righting Writing. Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1975.
This is a collection of thirty-four articles contributed by teachers and other experts (Ronald Cramer, Lee Odell, and Keith Kraus) from all grade levels. It contains excellent ideas on many topics including directions of how to set up a writers corner, description of a young authors' conference, instructions for a publishing game, and techniques for remedial writers.

Cooper, Charles, and Lee Odell (eds.). Research on Composing: Points of Departure. Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1978.
This is an excellent collection of articles on the research of thirteen well known writing experts including James Britton, Phillip Lopate, Donald Murray, Charles Cooper and Lee Odell. I found chapters by Walter Petty "The Writing of Young Children", Phillip Lopate "Helping Young Children Srart to Write", and John Schultz "Strong Workshops: Writing from Start to Finish" most helpful with my topic.

Cramer, Ronald. Children's Writing and Language Growth. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1978.
This is an outstanding source for teachers of elementary writing. The chapter on language acquisition is a must for full understanding of the writing process at the elementary level. Chapters eight and eleven defend the need to trach spelling, grammar, reading, and handwriting in context. Chapter seven focuses on evaluating children's writing while chapter nine discusses editing.

Elbow, Peter. Writing Without Teachers. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press, 1973.
This book is somewhat of a self help guide not only for writers but for teachers who may feel insecure about teaching writing. He does not intend it to be a theory book. Elbow tries not only to help the reader actually generate words more freely but also to make better judgements about which parts of one's own writing to keep and which to throw away. The author says that in proposing the teacherless writing class that he is not trying to deny that there are good writing teachers but that he is trying to deny the assumption that there is necessarily a connection between teaching and learning.

Graves, Donald and Donald Murray, "Revision: In the Writer's Workshop and in the Classroom". Durham, New Hampshire: The University of New Hampshire, 1980. (mimeographed.)
The writer is Donald M. Murray, Professor of English at the University of New Hampshire, who won the Pulitzer Prize for Journalism and who has published poetry, short stories, non-fiction, juveniles, novels, magazine articles, a text book for teachers A Writer Teaches Writing, a composition program for elementary schools, and many journal articles on the writing process. The researcher is Donald H. Graves, an Associate Professor of Education at The University of New Hampshire, Director of the Writing Process Laboratory, research editor of Language Arts, author of Balance the Basics: Let Them Write. Graves compares revision in the classroom to Murray's description of revision as a professional craft.

Graves, Donald. Balance the Basics: Let Them Write. New York; Ford Foundation, 1978.
This is an excellent report on the importance of writing. He also discusses the many reasons that Americans don't write well and how writing can be taught.

Graves, Donald. "Let Children Show Us How to Help Them Write," Visible Language, Vol. 13, No. 1, March 1979.
Graves discusses the need of children to controll their writing. Graves points out that when children learn to control their writing they write far beyond traditional expectations, spell better, and take pride in the craft of handwriting.

Graves, Donald. "What Children Show Us About Revision," Language Arts, Vol. 56, No. 3, March 1979.
Graves discusses what children know inately about revision and makes appropriate classroom application not only to spelling, handwriting, and words but sentences and paragraphs as well.

Holbrook, David. Children's Writing: A Sampler for Student Teachers. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 1967.
This is a handbook to help inexperienced teachers see children's writing, to look at it positively, and to identify opportunities to link children's writing with literature. The book provides many examples of children's work which may be used for discussion of evaluation.

Holbrook, David. The Secret Places: Essays on Imaginative Work in English Teaching and On The Culture of The Child. University Alabama: University of Alabama Press, 1965.
This book points out the weaknesses of textbook exercises which tend to promote false emotional values in teaching creative writing and stresses pulling from personal experiences for motivation. It includes samples of children's work. I found it somewhat useful.

Long, Littleton (ed.) Writing Exercises from Exercise Exchange. Urbana, Illinois. National Council of Teachers of English, 1976.
A good variety of articles reprinted from Exercise Exchange which focuses on expository and creative writing from prewriting through rewriting, which are unified by a common concern for good training and a common history of actual classroom use. Included are: A Checklist to Improve Writing Papers by L. Bloom and R. Wild, sections on diction and style, Ideas for Whole Papers and Special Topics, and chapters on Theme, Thesis, Paragraph and Research.

Marland, Michael. Language Across the Curriculum. London, England: Heinemann Educational Books Ltd, 1977.
This book is a part of the Heinemann Series on Organization in Schools which is a systematic attempt to improve secondary schools experience by a methodical organizational plan. The book has chapters on the need for a language policy and has lenghty discussions of policy components, but usually with emphasis on oral language instead of written practices. Classroom technicalities and school organization are discussed at greater length than actual practices.

Moffett, James. Teaching the Universe of Discourse. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1968.

This seems to be the most complete theory text. He discusses the three parts of discourse structure; speaker (first person), listener (second person), and subject (third person). Moffett identifies four basic types of discourse: reflection, conversation, correspondence, and publication. He supports strongly the need for writing in the language arts curriculum.

Murray, Donald. A Writer Teaches Writing. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1968.
Murray presents practical suggestions for improving composing skills and distinguishes between the importance of the writing teacher and the writer. He views the classroom as a writing laboratory.

O'Hare, Frank. Sentence Combining: Improving Student Writing Without Formal Grammar Instruction. Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1973.
O'Hare presents exercises involving extensive, sequenced practices of printed sentences through which students may acquire dexterity in writing complex sentence structures. The methodology has application as an instructional strategy at many grade levels of training in writing from elementary grades on.

Padgett, Ron and Bill Zavatsky (eds). The Whole Word Catalogues 2: A Unique Collection of Ideas and Materials to Stimulate Creativity in the Classroom. New York: McGraw Hill Paperbacks, 1977.

Catalogue 2 includes advice on how to teach the writing of poetry and prose; everything from Haiku to horror stories, ways to publish student work easily and inexpensively, sure fire framatic improvisation, movement, fantasies, group games, techniques for songwriting and music making, tips on buying and using video equipment, and exciting examples of creative work by children.

Shaughnessy, Mina. "Errors and Expectations". New York: Oxford University Press, 1977.
Shaughnessy analyses the problems encountered by basic writing students at City University of New York, and offers specific suggestions for improving common errors in grammar, syntax, punctuation, handwriting, spelling and vocabulary.

Sowers, Susan. "KDS CN RIT SUNR THN WE THINGK", Learning the Magazine for Creative Teaching, in press.

Researcher Sowers explores the writing abilities of five and six year olds as the transfer from oral to written language. This transfer requires patience and guidance from teachers and parents working with the child. Unlike many older people this age child does not associate writing with the disicipline of grammar and spelling.